ENGLISH LINGUISTICS STYLE SHEET

1. GENERAL INFORMATION

The references and conventions presented below are identical to the general stylesheet from the English Department, but focus on Linguistic sources and includes additional references specific to the Linguistic courses.

1.1 Organizing: Paragraphing & sections

On the whole, the rule ‘one idea, one paragraph’ is worth sticking to. Most paragraphs will be 1/3 to 2/3 of a page in length; anything much shorter or much longer should be avoided. It should be clear to you (and the reader) how each sentence contributes to the point of the paragraph which it belongs to and how each paragraph contributes to the line of argument in your paper.

There are two methods of indicating that a new paragraph has begun. In the first case, the first line of a new paragraph is indented by 1 cm:

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In the second case, the indentation is omitted; instead, the spacing after a paragraph should be 6 pt larger than normal:

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Note that text beginning new sections or following long quotations, examples, figures, tables or images etc. is not indented. The latter is because long quotations, etc. must be followed by some explanatory text and not by a new paragraph.

To help organize your work, it is worth dividing it up into explicitly marked sections. This helps to make it obvious for the reader what you are dealing with at any moment in time and gives a very clear overall structure to your work. Sections are numbered, beginning with 1., which is normally the introduction. If you deem it necessary, any section can have sub-sections (e.g. 1.1.) and even sub-sub-sections (e.g. 1.1.1.). However, sub-(sub-)sections are only useful if you are planning to deal with at least two aspects; i.e. only have a sub-section 1.1. if you are also going to have a sub-section 1.2.

Each sub-(sub-)section focuses on a specific aspect of the topic indicated by the section title. In titles and headings, you should capitalize only the first letter of the first word and any other words that are normally capitalized in English (e.g. proper nouns).

Do not leave large gaps between sections: there is no need to put each new section on a new page, for example. Avoid section titles at the bottom of a page when the rest of the section is on the next page.

1.2 Punctuation, font conventions and abbreviations

Use italics if you cite a word, phrase or sentence as a linguistic example or as the object of discussion; do not use quotation marks for this purpose (see (a) below). Note that linguistic examples
that are separated from the body of the text have to be numbered and are no longer in italics. If you want to make the morpho-syntactic structure of an example transparent, use the “Leipzig Glossing Rules” (Bickel, Comrie & Haspelmath 2015, accessible via https://www.eva.mpg.de/lingu/pdf/Glossing-Rules.pdf). Linguistic examples in a foreign language should be followed (at least when they first occur) by a translation in single quotation marks (like in (b)). We also use single quotation marks for ‘qualified’ words or phrases (like in (c)), and for words or phrases enclosed within quotation marks within quotations (see (d)).

Observe carefully how quotation marks are combined with other punctuation marks. Question marks and exclamation marks that are part of the quoted material, for example, go within the quotation marks, while commas, semicolons, colons and full stops follow the closing quotation mark (see (e) and (f)). Follow the formatting conventions in the list of references when the title of an article/a contribution to a book/a book is quoted (see (f); see also section 3.3 or section 6), e.g.:

(a) In a sentence like Where is he?, the pronoun he ...

(b) Lat. ovis ‘sheep’, equus ‘horse’ and canis ‘dog’ are nouns.

(c) stereotypically ‘female’ behaviour

(d) According to Gass and Mackey (2000: 21), “[c]ognitive psychologists have proposed that we employ various types of ‘cognitive structures’ or ‘mental representations’ to help organize the vast amount of information encountered on a daily basis”.

(e) Urquhart and Weir (1998: 18) believe that reading is a “language activity, involving at some time or another all the cognitive processes related to language performance”.

(f) While in earlier works like Aspects of the theory of syntax Chomsky (1965) supports this notion, he later moves away from it, as can be seen in his article “Language and other cognitive systems: what is special about language?” (Chomsky 2011).

If you want to emphasize a word in a quotation, italicize it and add [my emphasis]. If the author him/herself emphasized a word in the original text, use the same formatting and add [original emphasis], e.g.:

- Nation (2001: 320) argues that “[t]he main advantage of chunking is reduced processing time” [my emphasis].
- As Urquhart and Weir (1998: 44) point out, “while all readers use context, good readers are less dependent on it than poor ones” [original emphasis].

If you insist on indicating emphasis in your own text, do this by using language wherever possible, rather than typographic features. If it has to be done typographically, please do not use italics but **bold** type.

**Phonetic transcription** should be placed between square brackets [] in IPA symbols. Phonemic examples should be placed between slashes / /, e.g.:

There are two allophones of the English phoneme / l /: [l] and [ł].

If your computer does not have IPA fonts, 11 insert special (e.g. phonetic or phonemic) symbols and other special characters on the printout in ink, by hand. Make sure you draw diacritics over and under the letters in the exact position they are meant to occupy. **Orthographic symbols** are framed by angle brackets:

The letter <t> was omitted when ...
There are special conventions regarding font styles for mathematical expressions. Formula editors in software programs such as Microsoft Word convey a good idea of these conventions.

Avoid using too many abbreviations; they often pose severe problems for readers not completely familiar with the language of a text. Where more than one abbreviation is acceptable, select one and use it consistently throughout the text. The first time an abbreviation is used, it should appear in conjunction with the term written out in full. It might also be useful to provide a list of them (after the table of contents), particularly in a longer text. Abbreviations ending in a small letter have a full stop following them (e.g. OFr., Gk., Lat.), those ending in a capital letter do not (e.g. MHG, OCS, OE). Here are some abbreviations which are frequently used in linguistics and which you thus do not have to introduce or include in your list of abbreviations:

cf. Lat. conferre ‘compare’
e.g. Lat. exempli gratia ‘for the sake of example’
Any section can have sub-sections (e.g. 1.1.).
i.e. Lat. id est ‘that is’
Begin your list of references on a new page (i.e. the one after your conclusion).
s.v. Lat. sub voce or sub verbo ‘under the given word or heading’, or sub vide ‘look under’
For spill the beans see Collins Cobuild English Dictionary (Sinclair 1995: s.v. bean).

1.3 Examples, tables and figures
All linguistic examples set off from the running text are single-spaced and must be consecutively numbered in the text; do not start numbering your examples anew with each new heading or subheading. Unlike linguistic examples in the running text, these numbered examples are not given in italics (NB: some fields have different conventions). However, if you refer to (parts of) them again within your text, do so in italics, e.g.:

The examples given in (1) from Hengeveld and Mackenzie (2008: 145 [emphasis omitted]) illustrate how Propositional Contents can be modified, in these cases by maybe, whereas State-of-Affairs take other kinds of modification, like the temporal relative clause in (2) (Keizer 2015: 143 [emphasis omitted]):

(1) a. Unable to collect from the responsible party, the original card-holder, the credit grantor hopes that maybe the authorized user will pay to keep their credit record clean.

b. He believes that maybe the effect of the PeptoBismol® is due to its colour.

(2) The meeting that took place yesterday was boring.

BUT: Considering an example like The meeting that took place yesterday, it can be said that ...

If you include tables in your paper, label them ‘Table’, and give them an Arabic numeral and an informative caption, capitalized as you would a title, in 10 pt. bold (above the table). Other material such as photographs, images, charts and line drawings should be labelled ‘Figure’ (Fig.) and be properly numbered and captioned as well (below the figure). Diagrams and graphs should be labelled in a clear and legible way (e.g. axis labels). Captions should provide information on the data
depicted in a graph or table. Remember to also include a shorter version of this caption that still provides readers with a clear idea of what the figure or table shows in the list of tables and figures at the beginning of your paper, after the table of contents.

Take care to refer to all examples, tables and figures in the text. Begin by stating what they are meant to illustrate so that the reader knows what to look for. Then insert the example, table or figure and explain what it means. Conclude your explanation by briefly restating what it is meant to show. In other words, a new argument should never begin immediately following an example, table or figure.

For illustration, Figure 1 below shows the diachronic development of the English adverb *therefore* from 1800 to 2000 in the fiction genre (based on the Corpus of Historical American English, COHA, Davies 2010).

![Figure 1. Frequency trajectory of *therefore* in fiction texts showing a decreasing development. Time (horizontal axis) ranges from 1800 to 2000; token frequency (vertical axis) is normalized per million. Data were retrieved from COHA (Davies 2010).]

As Figure 1 clearly shows, *therefore* has been decreasingly used through the 19th and 20th century. A potential reason for this decline might be that…

1.4 Plagiarism

In your essays, presentations and handouts, it is very important to make clear when you are presenting your own ideas and using your own words and when you are using words and ideas which originate from other people. If you do not do this, you are committing plagiarism. Plagiarism includes the using of another author’s or student’s ideas or phrasing and representing them as your own without acknowledging it. Be aware it is also includes recycling your texts handed-in for previous courses or reusing your own text without indicating (self-plagiarism). Any cases of plagiarism will immediately result in a negative grade for the assignment and may lead to a negative grade for the course. Consult your lecturer in case of doubt.

2. REFERENCES

The sections below contain the information a student of English Linguistics needs to know to incorporate sources into their essays and reference them properly.

2.1 Citations & quotations

The proper citing of a work, includes two pieces of information:

1. The in-text citation (in the body of the paper)

One might argue that "[t]he question 'Why do we use language?' seems hardly to require an answer." (Crystal 1987: 10)
2. Bibliographic reference (in your reference list at the end of the paper)


In the text, the details of the literature referred to are not indicated in full and are NOT indicated in a footnote. Instead, three pieces of information are given in brackets after the relevant passage: *(Author’s surname Year of publication: Relevant page/s)*, e.g. (Channel 1988: 83-85). If an author’s name is part of the running text, integrate it in a suitable way, e.g.:

As Channel (1988: 83) points out, there is still much to learn about how vocabulary is learned in a second language.

Use initials or first names in the running text only when you need to distinguish two or more authors with identical last names.

Citations of books or articles by more than one author take the form (Fischer & Drescher 1996: 854) or (Jucker, Fritz & Lebsanft 1999: 38). Reprint editions are cited as follows: (Bloom & Gumperz 1986 [1972]: 66).

When using e-books, always try to find the version including page numbers. If only a version without page numbers is available (and no hard copy of the book is available in the library), provide the section or chapter number in the in-text citation.

When citing internet sources, the name of the author(s), the year of publication, if available, and the page numbers, if available, should be indicated. If no author is given, use the name of the organization, group or business, or the title of the web page, or, failing that, the web page’s URL. In the case of reference works such as dictionaries, where authorship is not clearly indicated, include the title of the reference work in your running text. This not only applies to online dictionaries, but also to printed editions.

For *spill the beans* see *Collins Cobuild English Dictionary* (Sinclair 1995: s.v. *bean*).

Try to avoid citing/paraphrasing text indirectly via another source containing this citation. If it is impossible to avoid, these citations take the form (Horn 1954: 694, quoted in/referred to in/cited in Fischer 1998: 39). In this case, both sources must be in the list of references.

Indirect quotations or paraphrases present the ideas or arguments of an author in your own words without quotation marks. In this case, it is extremely important that you add the source from which you gained the information in brackets as well as use the authors’ names in combination with a reporting phrase to indicate that the ideas are not your own. Failing to do so would be a clear case of plagiarism. Both the start and the end of the paraphrased text should be clearly indicated, e.g.:

Based on these assumptions, Andersen devised a diachronic model in which the development from lexical item to pragmatic marker is presented as a three-stage process (Andersen 2001: 57).

In order to account for variable meaning, Mosegaard Hansen (1998: 239) has suggested three different approaches: the homonymy or maximalist, the monosemy or minimalists, and the polysemy approach.

Verbatim (i.e. word-for-word) quotations can be integrated in two basic formats: if the quote is quite short (less than three full lines), it is included in the main body of the text and enclosed within double quotation marks, e.g.:
A reformulation of Alderson’s (1984) question by Bernhardt and Kamil (1995: 15) stresses the interaction between the two abilities/knowledge sources, asking, “How L1 literate does a second language reader have to be to make the second language knowledge work? How much second language knowledge does a second language reader have to have in order to make the L1 literacy knowledge work?”. 

Among other things, Bakhtin (1986 [1952-53]: 95-96) develops the idea of the inherent dialogicality of language:

> When constructing my utterance, I try to actively determine [the listener’s] response. [...] When speaking I always take into account the appreciative background of the addressee’s perception of my speech [...] because all this will determine his active responsive understanding of my utterance.

Thus, Bakhtin describes the mechanism behind a speaker’s design of an utterance (including choice of language variety) as a ‘dialogue’ with a listener’s projected responses to the utterance.

NB: as in the case of examples, you need to explain/discuss the quote after the quotation (see the example above).

All direct quotations should follow the original text exactly in wording, spelling and punctuation. As already shown above in the Bakhtin quotation, any changes that you make should be indicated by square brackets [.]. See, also, the example below where this, contrary to the original text, is spelled with a lowercase <t>. Indicate omissions by ellipsis points in square brackets: [...]. If you should spot mistakes (e.g. typos) in the original text, you may add Latin [sic] in square brackets after the flawed construction in question, e.g.:

- According to Yule (1996: 19), “[t]his assumption may lead us to think that a name or proper noun [...] can only be used to identify one specific person”.
- “She wanted to wear her roommates’ [sic] baby-blue cotton sweater” (Gibbs 1994: 356).

If you use quotations from languages other than English in the text, give the quote in the original language first and enclose the translation in square brackets, like in the following example taken from Illés (2001: 76):

> Ahlqvist (1994: 31) examining Irish spelling states that

> [b]aineann nósanna scriofo an tséimhithe go dlúth le nósanna scriofo na Laidine. Bhí h i ndiaidh c, p, agus t nádúrtha go maith, tosca na cairn chionsan sin a bheith coitianta sa Laidin [...] ach ó thrála gan a leithéid de litriú agus gh, bh, dh, agus mh a bheith sa teanga sin ar chor ar bith, cloíodh le b, d, g, m = /v, ð, ◊, v/ de réir chórás Laidin na Breataine [the means of writing lenition is closely related to the writing habits of Latin. H after c, p, and t was natural enough, on account of those consonant clusters being common in Latin [...] but since spellings like gh, bh, dh, and mh happened not to be existent in that language at all, b, d, g, m = /v, ð, ◊, v/ was adhered to, according to the system of British Latin].

During the Middle Irish period, mainly, the insertion of <h> after the consonant gradually became the general means of marking lenition, whereas nasalized consonants in spelling tended to be preceded by their voiced counterparts (and mutational offspring) in accordance with <g> > <ng>. 

Ahlqvist (1994: 31) examining Irish spelling states that
Even if you refer to the same source more than once within a short passage, you must always ensure that it is clear how much text is being referred to from that source and that full information can be retrieved from your references, e.g.:

Based on their reviews of other psychologists’ research, Rayner and Pollatsek (1989: 471) suggest a “(temporary) working model” of reading which is primarily bottom up but allows for some interaction with top-down processes. The authors point out that initial bottom-up processing (lexical access) is regulated by three factors: eye movements, processing activities up to word level and the different types of memory (Rayner & Pollatsek 1989: 472). Once the meaning of a word has been accessed, the reader’s attention shifts to the next word and an “ongoing text representation” (Rayner & Pollatsek 1989: 474) is created acoustically in working memory with the help of inner speech.

Linguistic examples taken from sources should not be integrated into the running text; instead it should be presented like a separate example, with numbering and a parenthetical note. You should not use quotation marks.

(1) She’s a summer’s day of a girl. (Aarts 1998: 123)

2.2 Format of bibliographic references

Your research paper must include a reference list at the end. All references should be listed in alphabetic order.

2.2.1 Books

Template for books:
Name, first name, ed./Hg. (year). Title in Italics. Series. Edition. Place: Publisher.

Ex.:

With two or three authors:


The second (and third) authors are listed with first name first and last name second.

More than three authors:


[With a book with more than three authors, then name the first author and then et al. (= and others)].
2.2.2 Journal Articles

Template for journal articles:
Name, first name (year). “Title of article in double quotation marks”. Journal Title in Italics volume number.Issue number: Pages [from-to].


2.2.3 Edited Volumes

Template for edited volume:
Name, first name, ed(s). (year). Book Title in Italics. Publisher: Place of publication.

Ex.: Cameron, Lynne, and Graham Low, eds. (1999). Researching and applying metaphor. Cambridge: CUP.

NB: you usually do not quote the edited volume but the article in the edited volume (see section 2.2.4)

2.2.4 Article in an edited volume

Template for article in an edited volume:
Name, first name (year). “Title of article in double quotation marks”. In: first name last name, ed(s). Book Title in Italics. Publisher: Place of publication. pages [from – to].


2.2.5 Two publications from the same author in the same year:


NB: the in-text reference (parenthetical note) would also include the a or b, i.e. (Minsky 1988a) or (Minsky 1988b).

2.2.6 Corpora

Corpus compilers usually indicate how they want a corpus to be cited in the handbook published with the corpus or on their webpage, like, for example, The Corpus of Contemporary American English:

If no official guidelines are available, try to provide as many details as possible, as in the following example:


In general, for in-text citations or referring to corpora in the text of your paper, use their established abbreviations. In the case of the Corpus of Contemporary American English that would be COCA. Make sure that the first time you refer to the corpus, you spell out the full name in a footnote or in the text.

2.2.7 Internet

For obvious reasons, you should treat much information from the internet with caution. To reference sources available on the WWW, follow the nearest equivalent format for print sources, plus URL and date of access. When citing internet sources in the running text for which no author is available (cf. section 3.3), use exactly the same wording in the end-of-text references, i.e. the title of the web page, e.g. Adslogans (2013) or, if no title is available, the web page’s URL. These are then put in place of the author. If there is no publication date available, use ‘n.d.’ in its place.


2.2.8 Unpublished works:

Course handouts


Lectures


Unpublished dissertations and theses


2.2.9 Textual data

If you are using published (or unpublished) texts for your data analysis, e.g. newspaper articles, speech transcripts, books, etc., whether individually or collectively (as a corpus), you should include details on these texts in the “References”, too. Use the same style of representation as above, i.e. if
you are analyzing a book, see 2.2.1, if you are using an article, see 2.2.2, if you are using WWW sources, see 2.2.7.

However, make sure you separate the entries for these texts from those that you use as sources. This can be done either by having a separate section called “Data” or by having a subsection of “References” called “Data”. Note that linguistics does not distinguish between secondary and primary literature, but between sources (included in “References”) and data (included in “Data”).

For example:

References

Data
Appendix 1: Cover page template

Title of your paper

Your name

Course title
Lecturer/Prof’s name
Semester
# Appendix 2: Sample Table of Contents

## Table of Contents

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